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11	UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT						
12	CENTRAL DISTRICT OF CALIFORNIA						
13		Case No. 2:15 CV 4067 DCC (CIC.)					
14	ARTHUR SHERIDAN, AN INDIVIDUAL, AND BARBARA	Case No. 2:15-CV-4067- PSG (GJSx)					
15	SHERIDAN, AN INDIVIDUAL, INDIVIDUALLY AND ON BEHALF	MEMORANDUM OF POINTS AND					
16	OF ALL THOSE SIMILARLY	AUTHORITIES IN SUPPORT OF MOTION TO DISMISS OR IN THE					
17	SITUATED,	ALTERNATIVE SPECIAL MOTION					
	Plaintiffs,	TO STRIKE UNDER CALIFORNIA CODE OF CIVIL PROCEDURE					
18	V	§ 425.16					
19	V.						
20	iHEARTMEDIA, INC., a Delaware corporation,	Complaint filed: May 29, 2015					
21	_	Date: October 5, 2015 Time: 1:30 PM					
22	Defendant.	Place: Courtroom 880 – Roybal					
23		Before: Hon. Philip S. Gutierrez					
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	II						

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INTRODUCTION

Defendant iHeartMedia, Inc. ("iHeartMedia") provides popular internet radio services under the "iHeartRadio" brand, and has been sued for broadcasting music to the public. That is constitutionally protected conduct. iHeartMedia hereby files a motion to dismiss the Complaint or, in the alternative, to strike each cause of action under California's "anti-SLAPP" statute.

This is a copycat lawsuit, modeled after litigation filed by Flo & Eddie, Inc., against Sirius and Pandora. Like Flo & Eddie, Plaintiffs here purport to own California state law rights in "pre-1972" sound recordings, and have filed a complaint against a radio broadcaster for playing those recordings without a license. Like the *Sirius* and *Pandora* cases, this one is a putative class action, asserting four causes of action: violation of California Civil Code section 980(a)(2); conversion; misappropriation; and unfair competition.

The present motions raise substantially the same legal issues as the anti-SLAPP motion Pandora filed against Flo & Eddie. On Pandora's motion, this Court ruled (1) that the complaint arose from "protected activity" under California's anti-SLAPP law, but (2) that Flo & Eddie could show a "probability of prevailing" on their claims. *See Pandora* at 6, 14. iHeartMedia respectfully asks the Court to revisit the latter holding here, pending the Ninth Circuit's review in the *Pandora* case.

In the Court's prior decisions on the merits, it concluded that the statutory phrase "exclusive ownership" in Civil Code section 980(a)(2) confers "all rights that can attach to intellectual property," save the singular enumerated exception for "cover" recordings. *See Sirius*, 2014 WL 4725382 at *5. That interpretation, however, conflicts with practice, precedent, and legislative history alike. It is

¹ See Flo & Eddie, Inc. v. Sirius XM Radio, Inc., 13-05693, 2014 WL 4725382 (C.D. Cal. Sept. 22, 2014) ("Sirius"); Flo & Eddie, Inc. v. Pandora Media, Inc., 14-7648 (C.D. Cal. Feb. 23, 2015) (Dkt. No. 28) ("Pandora"), appeal docketed, No. 15-55287 (9th Cir. Feb. 24, 2015).

wrong inter alia because:

- The fair use doctrine is constitutionally required—yet section 980(a)(2) nowhere codifies fair use, unlike the federal copyright statute. *Cf.* 17 U.S.C. § 107. Under the Court's reading of section 980(a)(2), the statute is thus unconstitutional.
- Unlike the federal copyright statute, section 980(a)(2) does not codify a "first sale" limitation—*i.e.*, a rule providing that no accounting to the rightsholder is required for distributions of a particular copy of a work following its first sale to the public. *Cf.* 17 U.S.C. § 109. Yet without such a limitation, every used record store in the state of California would be, and would have been for decades, a serial state-law copyright infringer.
- The Ninth Circuit has ruled that prior to the 1982 statutory revision yielding the current version of section 980(a)(2), the distribution of a sound recording to the public terminated all state law copyright protection for the work. *See Lone Ranger Television, Inc. v. Program Radio Corp.*, 740 F.2d 718, 726 (9th Cir. 1984). If the 1982 revision afforded "all rights that can attach to intellectual property" to those previously "published" sound recordings, it would have been the single largest rescission of works from the public domain in U.S. history—yet the revision met with no objection whatsoever from the broadcasting industry or anyone else, at a time when *any* rescission of works from the public domain was widely understood to be unconstitutional.

Each of these implausible or impossible implications is unavoidable under the Court's prevailing interpretation of section 980(a)(2). A different interpretation is thus warranted.

Properly understood, the term "exclusive ownership" in section 980(a)(2)

refers to the rights in sound recordings under state copyright law that the California Legislature had established, and the courts had enforced, as of the 1982 statutory revision. "[E]xclusive ownership" is exactly the same phrase that appeared in the previous version of the statute. The legislative history makes unmistakably clear that the 1982 update was intended to be nothing more than a technical amendment to conform California state law to the newly revised federal Copyright Act, without any substantive change. *Before* the 1982 revision, California copyright protection under section 980 applied only to previously unpublished sound recordings; and *after* the 1982 revision, California copyright protection under section 980 applied only to previously unpublished sound recordings.

The sound recordings at issue in this case were all "published" during the era when publication terminated state law copyright protection. Nothing in the time since has resurrected that state law copyright protection. As a result, the "exclusive ownership" codified in section 980(a)(2) does not prohibit iHeartMedia's radio broadcast of Plaintiffs' previously published pre-1972 sound recordings—conduct materially indistinguishable from what radio stations have been doing in California for nearly 100 years. The section 980(a)(2) cause of action in the Complaint thus fails as a matter of law.

The ancillary claims for conversion, misappropriation, and unfair competition fare no better. iHeartMedia hereby challenges them *both* to the extent that they depend on the section 980(a)(2) cause of action, *and* to the extent that Plaintiffs assert them as independent, freestanding claims. That is, they fail because the section 980(a)(2) claim should fail. *Cf. Sirius*, 2014 WL 4725382, at *10-11. And they also fail because, irrespective of the section 980(a)(2) claim, conversion, misappropriation, and unfair competition are not legal theories that proscribe the conduct alleged to be unlawful in the Complaint: a radio station's playing recorded music to its listeners, and carrying out the technological steps necessary to do so.

iHeartMedia thus moves to dismiss the Complaint under Federal Rule of Civil Procedure 12(b)(6), on the ground that each cause of action fails to state a claim on which relief can be granted. And, in the alternative, iHeartMedia moves to strike each cause of action under California's anti-SLAPP law.² The allegations here arise from "protected activity," just as they did against Pandora; and Plaintiffs cannot show a "probability of prevailing," because the Complaint should fail as a matter of law. *See* Cal. Code Civ. Proc. § 425.16(b)(1).³

As other courts have held, the issue of state law protection for pre-1972 sound recordings is "in fact a difficult legal question about which reasonable minds

sound recordings is "in fact a difficult legal question about which reasonable minds can differ." *Flo & Eddie, Inc. v. Sirius XM Radio Inc.*, 2015 WL 585641, at *2 (S.D.N.Y. Feb. 10, 2015) (granting motion for certification of interlocutory appeal). One federal court recently ruled that under Florida law, the rights asserted in this action do not exist. *See Flo & Eddie, Inc. v. Sirius XM Radio, Inc.*, 2015 WL 3852692, at *5 (S.D. Fla. June 22, 2015). A state court in California issued a tentative order to the same effect, only to reverse course later. *See Capitol Records, LLC v. Sirius XM Radio, Inc.*, No. BC 520981, at 4 (Cal. Super. Ct. Oct. 14, 2014). Under these unusual circumstances, Defendant respectfully asks the Court to revisit its merits rulings in *Sirius* and *Pandora* and reverse course.

BACKGROUND

A. Facts Alleged

iHeartMedia operates an internet radio service, iHeartRadio. The service "streams music and other programming to its paid subscribers via the internet,"

² Pursuant to Local Rule 7-3, counsel for both parties met and conferred regarding these Motions telephonically on July 7, 2015.

³ Federal courts recognize a distinction between anti-SLAPP motions in the nature of a Fed. R. Civ. P. 12(b)(6) motion, which assert defenses as a matter of law, and anti-SLAPP motions in the nature of a summary judgment motion under Fed. R. Civ. P. 56. *See*, *e.g.*, *Schwartz v. At the Cove Mgmt. Corp.*, 2013 WL 1103479, at *1-2 (S.D. Cal. Mar. 14, 2013). Discovery is allowed to contest the latter but not the former. *Id.* The anti-SLAPP motion at issue here is in the nature of a 12(b)(6) motion, in that takes all facts alleged in the Complaint as true, and mounts only legal (not factual) defenses.

1 which users can access "on computers, car radios, smart phones and other internet-2 connected devices." Compl. ¶ 2. iHeartRadio also broadcasts over the Internet 3 "hundreds of traditional (terrestrial AM and FM) radio stations" owned by 4 iHeartMedia. Id. ¶ 3. Although iHeartMedia obtains copyright licenses to deliver 5 music to its users when required by law—including licenses for the "musical 6 works" (i.e. songs) embodied in all recordings—iHeartMedia allegedly does not 7 take an additional license specifically for the sound recordings, themselves, when 8 the recordings were made before 1972. See id. ¶ 4. 9 Plaintiffs Arthur and Barbara Sheridan allegedly own state law copyrights in 10 a number of pre-1972 sound recordings, many of which are popular titles in the Rhythm & Blues genre of music. See id. ¶¶ 12, 13. They have filed a putative 12 class action against iHeartMedia on behalf of "[a]ll owners of sound recordings of 13 musical performances that were fixed/recorded prior to February 15, 1972 and were performed, streamed, distributed, reproduced or otherwise exploited by 14 15 iHeartMedia Inc." Id. ¶ 18. 16 Plaintiffs claim that iHeartMedia has "repeatedly infringed/violated" their "ownership interests in their pre-1972 recordings, including the right to publicly 17 18 perform them" by "streaming these performances to California listeners." Id. ¶¶ 25-26. They allege that iHeartMedia's conduct gives rise to four discrete causes 19 of action: violations of California Civil Code section 980(a)(2) (id.); 20 21

misappropriation (id. \P 29); conversion (id. \P 30); and unfair competition under California Business and Professions Code section 17200 (id. ¶ 31). Plaintiffs seek at least \$5 million in damages on behalf of the class (id. \P 9), along with various

B. The Anti-SLAPP Statute

forms of equitable relief (id. "Prayer for Relief").

California enacted an "anti-SLAPP" statute in 1992. Equilon Enter., LLC v.

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1	Consumer Cause, Inc., 29 Cal.4th 53, 59-60 (2002). ⁴ Its purpose is to protect the
2	exercise of First Amendment rights against the burdens imposed by legal claims
3	that are not reasonably likely to prevail. Varian Med. Sys., Inc. v. Delfino, 35
4	Cal.4th 180, 192 (2005). Under established Ninth Circuit precedent, defendants
5	are permitted to file anti-SLAPP motions in federal court cases governed by
6	California law. Newsham v. Lockheed Missiles & Space Co., 190 F.3d 963, 973
7	(9th Cir. 1999); Makaeff v. Trump Univ., LLC, 715 F.3d 254, 261 (9th Cir. 2013).
8	The anti-SLAPP statute creates a "special motion to strike" applicable to
9	causes of action that would impose liability based on the exercise of the
10	constitutional right to Free Speech. California Code of Civil Procedure section
11	425.16(b)(1) provides:
12	A cause of action against a person arising from any act of that
13	person in furtherance of the person's right of petition or free
14	speech under the United States Constitution or the California
15	Constitution in connection with a public issue shall be subject
16	to a special motion to strike, unless the court determines that
17	the plaintiff has established that there is a probability that the
18	plaintiff will prevail on the claim.
19	Defendants may file anti-SLAPP motions as a matter of right within 60 days of the
20	service of a complaint. Cal. Civ. Proc. Code § 425.16(f).
21	Resolution of an anti-SLAPP motion proceeds in two steps. First, "the
22	moving defendant must make a prima facie showing that the plaintiff's suit arises
23	from an act in furtherance of the defendant's constitutional right to free speech."
24	Makaeff, 715 F.3d at 261. Courts sometimes frame this question as whether the
25	defendant can show that the plaintiff's claim would burden "protected activity."
26	See, e.g., City of Colton v. Singletary, 206 Cal. App. 4th 751, 766 (2012). Second,
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28	⁴ "SLAPP" is an acronym for "strategic lawsuit against public participation." <i>Equilon</i> , 29 Cal.4th at 57.

1 "[t]he burden then shifts to the plaintiff . . . to establish a reasonable probability 2 that it will prevail on its claim," despite the claim's effect on "protected activity." 3 Makaeff, 715 F.3d at 261-62. If the defendant shows that the plaintiff's claims target "protected activity," and the plaintiff fails to carry its burden to show a 4 5 probability of prevailing, the court strikes the plaintiff's offending claims. See id. 6 The anti-SLAPP statute defines "protected activity" very broadly. It covers not just First Amendment conduct addressed to *political* issues, but any conduct in 7 8 furtherance of the defendant's right to Free Speech on "any issue in which the 9 public is interested." Nygard, Inc. v. Uusi-Kerttula, 159 Cal. App. 4th 1027, 1042 (2008) (emphasis added). Thus when California adopted a number of exemptions 10 from the anti-SLAPP law's coverage—including a limited category of "action[s] 12 brought solely in the public interest"—the Legislature expressly carved out of 13 those exemptions suits asserting liability from the dissemination of artistic works. 14 Specifically, Code of Civil Procedure section 425.17(d)(2) provides that there is no 15 exemption from the anti-SLAPP statute for "[a]ny action against any person or 16 entity based upon the creation, dissemination, exhibition, advertisement, or other 17 similar promotion of any dramatic, literary, musical, political, or artistic work." 18 Both the Legislature and the California Supreme Court have emphasized that 19 the anti-SLAPP law must be read generously in favor of the constitutional rights it 20 protects. In response to several unduly narrow judicial interpretations of the 21 statute, the Legislature amended its preamble in 1997 to add a directive that section 22 425.16 "be construed broadly." See Briggs v. Eden Council for Hope & 23 Opportunity, 19 Cal.4th 1106, 1119 (1999) (emphasis added); Code Civ. Proc. 24 § 425.16(a). The Court has honored that instruction, consistently rejecting efforts 25 by litigants and lower courts to pinch the anti-SLAPP statute's scope. See, e.g., 26 Equilon, 29 Cal.4th at 57 (defendant need not show that plaintiff's action "was 27 brought with the *intent* to chill the defendant's exercise of constitutional speech or

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petition rights") (emphasis added); *Briggs*, 19 Cal.4th at 1119 (holding that courts

"whenever possible, should interpret the First Amendment and section 425.16 in a manner favorable to the exercise of freedom of speech, not its curtailment") (quotation marks omitted).

C. State And Federal Copyright Principles

This case, like the preceding litigation before the Court concerning the same issues, involves the interrelationship between state and federal copyright laws. By and large, copyright protection in the United States is the province of the federal government. *See* 17 U.S.C. § 301(a). But Congress has carved out limited categories in which states can choose whether (and to what extent) to protect particular types of works. "Sound recordings" made before February 15, 1972 are one such category. 17 U.S.C. § 301(c).

1. Federal Copyright Protection For Songs And Recordings

Federal copyright law has always treated *songs* differently from *recordings* of songs. Songs (also known as "musical works") are the notes and lyrics written by the composer and author. Since 1831, songs have enjoyed federal copyright protection. *See* Act of Feb. 3, 1831, c. 16, § 1, 4 Stat. 436. Regardless of the outcome of this case, it is definitely, beyond dispute, a copyright infringement—under federal law—for someone to take a hit *song* by any of the artists at issue and reproduce, distribute, or publicly perform it without a license. *See* 17 U.S.C. § 106. "Performing rights societies" like ASCAP, BMI, and SESAC exist for the purpose of collecting license fees from companies like iHeartMedia to pay to the rightsholders of these works every time a song gets publicly performed. *See* 17 U.S.C. § 101 (defining "performing rights society"). Those federal "musical work" copyrights apply to songs recorded before 1972 no less than songs recorded today, and last as long as the life of the author plus seventy years. *See* 17 U.S.C. § 302. Plaintiffs do not allege that iHeartMedia has failed to pay any required "musical work" royalties.

⁵ Assuming, of course, that those works remain under federal copyright protection.

Historically, there was *no* federal copyright protection for the *sound* recording that captured a particular rendition of a musical work. In response to concerted lobbying by the record industry, Congress changed that policy in the Sound Recording Act of 1971. See Sound Recording Act of 1971, Pub. L. No. 92-140, 85 Stat. 391 ("1971 Act"); Robert L. Bard et. al, A Public Performance Right in Recordings: How to Alter the Copyright System Without Improving It, 43 Geo. Wash. L. Rev. 152, 153-54 (1974). Congress chose, however, to impose significant limitations on the new sound recording copyright it created. First, a sound recording copyright, unlike a musical work copyright, did not grant the owner any exclusive right of "public performance"—so playing a sound recording over the radio triggered no obligation to pay a royalty (beyond the one already owed to the musical work copyright holder). Bonneville v. Peters, 347 F.3d 485, 487 (3d Cir. 2003). Second, even the limited rights that were available would apply only to sound recordings "fixed," i.e., made, after February 15, 1972. 17 U.S.C. § 301(c).

In 1995, Congress took a step to broaden the legal protection for those sound recordings, granting them a form of "public performance" right for the first time. *See* Digital Performance Right in Sound Recordings Act of 1995, Pub. L. No. 104-39, 109 Stat. 336. But even so, it restricted the right to cover only public performances delivered via *digital transmission*. *See* 17 U.S.C. § 106(6). That law, as amended, remains in effect today. So for sound recordings protected by federal copyrights, there is no royalty obligation for over-the-air radio plays or inperson public performances, but there is a royalty obligation for public performances carried out over a digital medium (subject to the elaborate compulsory licensing regimes codified in 17 U.S.C. section 114).

⁶ Notably, there was no outcry at the time by record labels or anyone else complaining that Congress had *diminished* the protection then accorded sound recordings under state law—even though going forward, sound recordings would be governed exclusively by federal law and would enjoy *no* public performance right.

2. State Copyright Protection For Unpublished Works From the time of the first U.S. copyright law, adopted by the first U.S.

Congress in 1790, federal statutory copyright protection was historically available only for *published* works. *See* Copyright Act of 1790, 1 Stat. 124, § 2 (conditioning copyright on the "publishing" of a map, chart or book). This was the rule for most of the 20th century, including the period during which the titles at issue here were recorded. *See* Act to Amend and Consolidate the Acts Respecting Copyright, 35 Stat. 1077, § 9 (March 4, 1909) ("1909 Act") ("[A]ny person entitled thereto by this Act may secure copyright for his work by publication thereof with the notice of copyright required by this Act[.]"); 61 Stat. 656, c. 391 (July 30, 1947) (recodifying the publication requirement in 17 U.S.C. § 10).

That left a void, of course, for *unpublished* works: what rights would an author have if someone purloined her manuscript from her nightstand drawer and started selling it? The answer developed through a combination of judicial decisions recognizing a "common law" copyright in unpublished works, and state statutes codifying those rights. *See generally 1961 Report*.

California was one of the states to address the issue by statute. In 1872, the Legislature adopted Civil Code section 980, which provided:

The author of any product of the mind, whether it is an invention, or a composition in letters or art . . . has an exclusive ownership therein, and in the representation or expression thereof.

Cal. Civ. Code § 980 (1874) (amended 1947, 1949, 1982). The same law, however, limited that protection to the period *before* a work was "public"; Civil

⁷ In fact, this tradition dated all the way back to the world's first modern copyright law, England's Statute of Anne, enacted in 1710. *See* U.S. Copyright Office, *Study No. 29: Protection of Unpublished Works*, at 2 (1961) ("1961 Report") ("[T]he Statute of Anne dealt only with copyright in books after publication[.]").

⁸ It was not until the 1976 Copyright Act that Congress extended federal protection to unpublished works.

Code section 983 read:

If the owner of a product of the mind intentionally makes it public, a copy or reproduction may be made public by any person, without responsibility to the owner, so far as the law of this State is concerned.

Cal. Civ. Code § 983 (1874) (amended 1947, 1949, 1982). This restriction mirrored the judicial treatment of "common law" copyrights, which universally held that the "publication" of a work divested its common law protection. *See 1961 Report* at 1 ("It is the accepted rule of law that the property right which the author has under the common law is terminated by publication of the work.").

When sound recordings started gaining commercial traction in the early 20th century, they were not subject to federal copyright protection, as discussed above. It thus became an important question to litigants precisely what it meant for a record to be "ma[de] public" (under the 1872 California statute) or "published" (under the common law). That event, whenever it occurred, would extinguish common law (or California statutory) copyright protection—and no federal copyright protection would take its place.

For many years, the leading judicial opinion on the issue of when publication divested a sound recording of its common law copyright was *RCA Manufacturing Co. v. Whiteman*, 114 F.2d 86 (2d Cir. 1940), written by Judge Learned Hand.⁹ In that case, RCA filed suit to enjoin "the broadcasting of phonograph records of musical performances" over the radio by the W.B.O. Broadcasting Corporation. *Id.* at 87. Seeking specifically to ensure license payments for radio plays, RCA had put a legend on its records saying that they were "Only For Non-Commercial Use on Phonographs in Homes." *Id.* That

⁹ In the 1950s, New York state courts considered the same legal issues at stake in *Whiteman* and reached contrary decisions. *See* Order Denying Defendant's Motion for Reconsideration at 7, *Flo & Eddie, Inc. v. Sirius XM Radio, Inc.*, 13-05784 (S.D.N.Y., Dec. 12, 2014).

1 tactic, the Second Circuit ruled, did not work: "the 'common-law' property in these performances ended with the sale of the records and that . . . restriction did not 3 save it." Id. at 89. Selling the phonographs in commerce was a "'publication' in the sense that that destroys the 'common-law property'" interest at stake. *Id.* at 88-5 89. This was so, Judge Hand wrote, regardless of the fact that sound recordings 6 could not be protected under the 1909 Act (the federal copyright law then in 7 effect); "the fact that they are not within the act should make no difference," he 8 explained. Id. at 89. "[W]e see no reason why the same acts that unconditionally 9 dedicate the common-law copyright in works copyrightable under the act, should 10 not do the same in the case of works not copyrightable." *Id.* 11 This was the widely recognized state of the common law less than seven years later, in mid-1947, when California first revised Civil Code section 983. 10 12 13 The new version of that provision, which remained in effect throughout the period when most of the recordings at issue in this case were made, said: 14 15 If the owner of a composition in letters or art publishes it the 16 same may be used in any manner by any person, without responsibility to the owner insofar as the law of this State is 17 18 concerned. 19 See Act of July 9, 1947, c. 1107, 1947 Cal. Stat. 2546; Cal. Civ. Code § 983 (West 20 1947) (emphasis added). The legislative history of the 1947 revision makes clear 21 that its purpose was to "bring the California statute into accord with federal law and judicial precedent within and without California." See Leg. Assemb. B. 566, 22 23 57th Gen. Sess. (Cal. 1947) ("1947 Leg. Hist.") (attached hereto as App. Ex. 9), at 24 25. That is why the Legislature substituted the phrase "publishes it"—tracking the 25 The Whiteman decision—which "opened the door for the unrestricted, unauthorized, and uncompensated use of phonograph records on radio stations"—is in fact widely understood to have been a leading cause of the famous American Federation of Musicians strike against recording new phonographs, which lasted 27 months from 1942 to 1944. See U.S. Copyright Office, Performance Right in Sound Recordings, at 654 (1978) (describing the strike as the union's "solution" to Whiteman under the leadership of James Petrillo). 26 27 28

common law concept of "publication"—for the slightly distinct phrase "makes it public" in the old version of the law. The impetus for the edit was simply to avoid potential confusion, rather than effectuate a substantive change in prevailing doctrine; as the legislation's sponsor explained, "[o]ur courts have [in practice] construed the [1872 version of the] California statutes in accord with judicial precedent throughout the United States." *Id.* at 37. To illustrate that point, he cited a 1936 Second Circuit opinion by Judge Hand as an example of a case that reflected the accepted approach to interpreting both section 983 and the common law principles it embodied. *Id.* There is no question, then, that the amendment was intended, out of an abundance of caution, to confirm that California "copyright" divestiture" doctrine was to follow the widely accepted common law of "publication," as it stood in 1947. Any sound recording published in that era lost its California copyright protection. That said, courts over the ensuing years would recognize that *other* common law doctrines—specifically misappropriation, conversion, and unfair competition—could effectively restrict a limited set of uses of published sound recordings. In Capitol Records, Inc. v. Erickson, for example, the defendant was "admittedly in the business" of buying records on the open market, duplicating them, and reselling the pirated copies to the public in direct competition with the plaintiff. 2 Cal. App. 3d 526, 528 (1969). The Court of Appeal affirmed a preliminary injunction halting that practice, invoking misappropriation and unfair competition doctrine as the basis for its ruling. *Id.* at 537-38. A&M Records, Inc., v. Heilman presented a similar fact pattern, with the defendant in "the business of

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advertising and selling pirated records and tapes." 75 Cal. App. 3d 554, 560

and conversion. Id. at 570. Neither case involved section 980, California's

copyright statute; and neither opinion suggested, or even allowed, that

(1977). The Court of Appeal affirmed an award of damages for misappropriation

misappropriation, conversion or unfair competition law replicates the full bundle of

rights available under copyright law.

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Against this backdrop, the law in California remained unchanged until 1982, 11 when the state Legislature simultaneously amended both section 980 (which had granted a California copyright to "[t]he author or proprietor of any composition in letters or art" in the first instance) and section 983. The 1982 revision was a clean-up bill, designed to "repeal existing provisions of state copyright law which have become obsolete in view of the preemption thereof by the Federal Copyright Act of 1976." See Leg. Assemb. B. 3483, 1981-82 Reg. Sess. (Cal. 1982) ("1982 Leg. Hist.") (attached hereto as App. Ex. 11) at 45. The 1976 Act had made federal law newly applicable to any works "fixed in a tangible medium of expression," regardless of whether they were published or unpublished. See 17 U.S.C. § 102(a). And it contained a sweeping preemption clause, 17 U.S.C. section 301, that expressly overrode the ability of states like California to provide the protection they had historically accorded *unpublished* works. The California Legislature thus undertook to "repeal those statutes preempted by federal law," and replace them with narrower provisions governing the modest subject matters still eligible for state regulation. 1982 Leg. Hist. at 23.

One of those replacements was a new section 980(a), which in clause (2) addressed sound recordings made before 1972. That provision, the legislative digest made clear, was intended to do nothing more than "maintain rights and remedies in sound recordings fixed prior to February 15, 1972." *See* 1982 Leg. Hist. at 14. The text provided, in full:

The author of an original work of authorship consisting of a sound recording initially fixed prior to February 15, 1972, has an exclusive ownership therein until February 15, 2047, as against all persons except one who independently makes or

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A 1949 revision recodified the text of the 1947 version of section 983 into a new section 983(a). See 1949 Cal. Stat., c. 921, p. 1686, § 4.

1 duplicates another sound recording that does not directly or indirectly recapture the actual sounds fixed in such prior sound 3 recording, but consists entirely of an independent fixation of other sounds, even though such sounds imitate or simulate the 5 sounds contained in the prior sound recording. 6 Cal. Civ. Code § 980(a)(2). 7

At the same time, the 1982 statutory revision deleted the 1947 version of section 983, which had always "terminat[ed] common law copyright upon publication of the work." See 1982 Leg. Hist. at 54. This amendment was necessary, the State Bar explained, because the new federal copyright law "abolish[ed] a former distinction between state protection for unpublished works and federal protection for published works." Id. at 55; see also Klekas v. Emi Films, Inc., 150 Cal. App. 3d 1102, 1108-09 (1984) ("Congress, by passing the 1976 Act, intended to abolish th[e] dual system of common-law copyright for unpublished works and statutory copyright for published works[.]"). Going forward, no new *unpublished* works could be eligible for state law copyright protection at all—because federal law, to the exclusion of state law, would newly cover those works no less than published ones. So it was pointless to leave a statutory provision on the books *extinguishing* state protection upon publication.

There was "no known opposition to the bill." 1982 Leg. Hist. at 50. That resounding silence stands in stark contrast to the decades of rancorous public policy debate and legislative wrangling over whether to establish a performance right for sound recordings. 12 If the 1982 revision of California Civil Code section 980 resurrected protection for sound recordings whose state copyright protection

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¹² See, e.g., Performance Royalty, Hearings before the S. Subcomm. on Patents, Trademarks and Copyrights of the S. Comm. on the Judiciary, 94th Cong., at 1 (1975) (statement of Senator Scott) ("Today we are holding hearings on a matter of great importance and interest to all of us. We will consider whether artists... should be compensated when recordings of their work are played publicly.... I have supported this extension of the performance royalty concept for the past 30 years.... The broadcasting industry has been a major opponent.").

had previously been terminated by publication, it did so without anyone in the broadcasting industry so much as writing a letter to the editor against that fundamental transformation of the California copyright regime. **ARGUMENT** This Court should grant iHeartMedia's motion to dismiss because the Complaint fails to state a claim on which relief can be granted. See Ashcroft v. *Iqbal*, 556 U.S. 662, 678 (2009). Taking all of the allegations as true, id., iHeartMedia has not violated any California law. In the alternative, this Court should grant iHeartMedia's anti-SLAPP motion. As in *Pandora*, the liability alleged here arises from "protected activity" under California Code of Civil Procedure section 425.16, so the first prong of the anti-SLAPP inquiry is satisfied. And under the second prong of the anti-SLAPP inquiry, Plaintiffs cannot show a probability of prevailing for the same reasons that their Complaint should be dismissed: the conduct at issue is perfectly lawful.¹³ I. PLAINTIFFS' CLAIMS ARISE FROM PANDORA'S PROTECTED ACTIVITY UNDER THE ANTI-SLAPP STATUTE This Court has already ruled, in *Pandora*, that an internet radio station's "streaming [pre-1972 sound recordings] to users" constitutes "protected activity" under the first prong of the anti-SLAPP statute." Pandora at 6. This holding applies to iHeartMedia no less than it did to Pandora, as the conduct alleged to give rise to liability in the two cases is effectively identical. The same result is also independently warranted here. The anti-SLAPP statute allows defendants to strike baseless claims asserting liability arising from ¹³ In the event this Court denies the anti-SLAPP motion, iHeartMedia respectfully seeks a stay of all proceedings pending an appeal of that order, or in the alternative the opportunity to brief the stay issue. See All One God Faith, Inc. v. Hain Celestial Group, Inc., 2009 WL 4907433, at *2 n. 2 (N.D. Cal. 2009) ("The appeal of a ruling on an anti-SLAPP motion imposes an automatic stay of all further trial court proceedings on the merits."); *Pandora*, Dkt. No. 53 (Order Staying Action).

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"any . . . conduct in furtherance of the exercise of the constitutional right . . . of free speech in connection with a public issue or an issue of public interest." Cal. Civ. Proc. Code § 425.16(e)(4) (defining actions covered by § 425.16(b)(1)). That category encompasses all of iHeartMedia's conduct that Plaintiffs allege is illegal. "There is no doubt that entertainment, as well as news, enjoys First Amendment protection." Zacchini v. Scripps-Howard Broad. Co., 433 U.S. 562, 578 (1977). More specifically, "[m]usic, as a form of expression and communication, is protected under the First Amendment." Ward v. Rock Against Racism, 491 U.S. 781, 790 (1989). That protection extends not just to the original creators of musical works and recordings, but also to third parties who disseminate them; thus "motion pictures, programs broadcast by radio and television, and live entertainment, such as musical and dramatic works, [all] fall within the First Amendment guarantee." Schad v. Borough of Mount Ephraim, 452 U.S. 61, 65 (1981). iHeartMedia's streaming of music to its users is, beyond dispute, an exercise of First Amendment rights. See Cinevision Corp. v. City of Burbank, 745 F.2d 560, 567-68 (9th Cir. 1984) (making expressive materials available to the public "further[s] a first amendment interest"). All of the Free Speech conduct at issue in this case is also "in connection with a public issue or an issue of public interest" within the meaning of the anti-SLAPP law. "Like the SLAPP statute itself, the question whether something is an issue of public interest must be 'construed broadly.'" *Hecimovich v. Encinal Sch.* Parent Teacher Org., 203 Cal. App. 4th 450, 464 (2012) (quoting Cal. Civ. Proc. Code § 425.16(a)). First Amendment expression is deemed to qualify whenever it "concerns a topic of widespread public interest and contributes in some manner to a public discussion of the topic." Stewart v. Rolling Stone LLC, 181 Cal. App. 4th 664, 677 (2010); see also Nygard, 159 Cal. App. 4th at 1042 (explaining that "an issue of public interest'... is any issue in which the public is interested," and that

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"the issue need not be 'significant' to be protected under the anti-SLAPP statute—

it is enough that it is one in which the public takes an interest"). The Ninth Circuit has held that a suit asserting liability from the public dissemination of a popular rock band's recorded performances satisfies this standard. See Cusano v. Klein, 473 Fed. Appx. 803, 804 (9th Cir. 2012); see also Stewart, 181 Cal. App. 4th at 678 (listing widely-recognized band names in a magazine is an exercise of Free Speech rights in connection with an "issue of public interest"); No Doubt v. Activision Publ'g, Inc., 192 Cal. App. 4th 1018, 1027 (2011) (same for using band members' likenesses in a video game where the band members had achieved widespread fame). The present suit does the same: iHeartMedia has been accused of disseminating "popular titles in the Rhythm & Blues genre," which are plainly material "in which the public takes an interest." See Compl. ¶ 12; Nygard, 159 Cal. App. 4th at 1042. iHeartMedia's Free Speech conduct is thus "in connection with . . . an issue of public interest," just as Pandora's was. See Cal. Civ. Proc. Code § 425.16(e)(4); *Pandora* at 6. iHeartMedia's streaming music to users—the activity that Plaintiffs claim gives rise to liability—therefore constitutes "protected activity" under the anti-SLAPP law. In fact, California Code of Civil Procedure section 425.17(d)(2) expressly recognizes that anti-SLAPP motions can be brought to strike lawsuits of exactly this type, specifically including "[a]ny action against any person or entity based upon the . . . dissemination, exhibition . . . or other similar promotion of any ... musical ... or artistic work[.]" Litigation against a radio broadcaster over its performances of allegedly popular recorded songs plainly fits that category.¹⁴ Plaintiffs' claims arise from iHeartMedia's exercise of constitutional rights protected by California Code of Civil Procedure section 425.16(b)(1), so iHeartMedia carries its burden under the first prong of the anti-SLAPP inquiry.

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We do not suggest that Plaintiffs' suit is otherwise a qualifying "action brought solely in the public interest" under section 425.17(b). It is not.

II. THE COMPLAINT FAILS TO STATE CLAIMS ON WHICH RELIEF CAN BE GRANTED, AND PLAINTIFFS THUS CANNOT SHOW A PROBABILITY OF PREVAILING

On the merits, the Court should grant iHeartMedia's motion to dismiss or, in the alternative, its anti-SLAPP motion, because Plaintiffs' claims fail as a matter of law. *Cf. Pandora* at 7 ("If the Court agrees with [the moving defendant's] theory, it will grant the anti-SLAPP motion because [the plaintiffs] have no probability of prevailing in a lawsuit premised on the violation of non-existent rights."). iHeartMedia recognizes that this Court has previously ruled that broadcasting pre-1972 sound recordings does violate state law rights, but respectfully asks the Court to revisit those holdings, pending the Ninth Circuit's review in the *Pandora* case. *See Pandora*, Dkt. No. 30 (Notice of Appeal).

A. Plaintiffs' Section 980(a)(2) Claim Fails As A Matter of Law

The Court's interpretation of the statutory phrase "exclusive ownership" in *Sirius* and *Pandora* is wrong as a matter of law. *See* Cal. Civ. Code § 980(a)(2). That language does not confer "all rights that can attach to intellectual property," with just one single exception for "cover" recordings enumerated elsewhere in the provision. *Cf. Sirius*, 2014 WL 4725382, at *5. Instead, it codifies the limited "exclusive ownership" interests that California law had established and recognized as of the 1982 statutory revision yielding the current version of section 980(a)(2). Those interests exclude the rights asserted by Plaintiffs here.

1. "Exclusive Ownership" Does Not Confer All Known IP Rights

In its prior rulings, the Court has not reconciled its sweeping interpretation of the statutory phrase "exclusive ownership" with the following three considerations.

Fair Use. Fair use is an equitable doctrine that limits copyright protection, allowing people other than the rightsholder to copy, distribute and perform copyrighted works in a variety of ways. *Sony Corp. of Am. v. Universal City*

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1 Studios, Inc., 464 U.S. 417, 455 (1984). The availability of fair use is 2 constitutionally required; without it, copyright laws violate the First Amendment. Golan v. Holder, 132 S.Ct. 873, 890 (2012). The federal Copyright Act codifies 3 the availability of fair use in 17 U.S.C. section 107 (and has done so since 1976). 4 5 California Civil Code section 980 has no comparable codification of fair use. 6 According to the Court's reasoning in *Sirius*, the California Legislature thus 7 presumptively intended *not* to make fair use available for sound recordings, since it 8 was "likely aware" of all the "limitations listed in the Federal Copyright Act, yet 9 chose to incorporate only one exception into its revised § 980(a)(2)." See Sirius, 10 2014 WL 4725382, at *7. This reading of section 980(a)(2)—in which the only available limitation or exception to "all rights that can attach to intellectual 11 12 property" is the one enumerated in the statute, and all others are excluded—makes 13 the statute unconstitutional because it does not provide for, and thus excludes the availability of, fair use for sound recordings made before 1972. See Golan, 132 14 S.Ct. at 890.15 15 16 A different interpretation is warranted.

First Sale. One of the rights a copyright owner enjoys under federal law is the right "to distribute copies . . . of the copyrighted work to the public." 17 U.S.C. § 106(3). The "first sale" doctrine is an important limitation on this right, providing that the "distribution" right is exhausted after the first time a given copy has been sold. In practical terms, this is the legal mechanism by which used bookstores and used record stores can operate; without it, every successive distribution of a given copy of a book or CD would be an infringement, so every seller of previously sold works would be a serial law-breaker. Since 1976, the federal Copyright Act has codified the first sale limitation in 17 U.S.C. § 109.

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¹⁵ Lest iHeartMedia be accused of arguing against a straw man here, we note that in the Pandora case, the plaintiff expressly contended that the omission of fair use from section 980(a)(2) meant that fair use was unavailable for sound recordings. Pl's Opp. to Mot. to Strike at 25 n. 8, *Flo & Eddie, Inc. v. Pandora Media, Inc.*, 14-7648 (C.D. Cal. Feb. 23, 2015) (Dkt. No. 23) ("*Pandora Anti-SLAPP Opp.*").

California Civil Code section 980 has no comparable codification of the first sale doctrine. According to the Court's reasoning in Sirius, the California Legislature thus presumptively intended *not* to limit the exclusive right to distribute a copy of sound recording to the public to just one initial sale, as Congress did. See Sirius, 2014 WL 4725382, at *7.16 Yet if there is no first sale limitation applicable to section 980(a)(2), then every used record store in the state of California would effectively be cast as a criminal enterprise—since the exclusive right to distribute copies of a work to the public is clearly "one of the rights that can attach to intellectual property." Cf. People v. Sisuphan, 181 Cal. App. 4th 800, 813 n.12 (2010) ("[C]riminal conversion occurs when [the] defendant exercises dominion over property inconsistent with the owner's rights[.]"); Cal. Civ. Code § 986 (granting artists five percent of all revenue from the sale of their paintings in perpetuity). The Legislature cannot have intended, and did not intend, any such result. A different interpretation is warranted. **Rescission From The Public Domain**. In the era before the 1982 revision

Rescission From The Public Domain. In the era before the 1982 revision of section 980(a)(2), the distribution of a sound recording in commerce terminated its California state law copyright protection (*i.e.*, its protection under thenoperative Civil Code section 980). This is not open for debate; it is binding precedent, under the Ninth Circuit's holding in *Lone Ranger*. 740 F.2d at 726. Decades worth of popular sound recordings were thus, as of 1981, in California's public domain.¹⁷

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¹⁶ Again, in the Pandora case, the plaintiff expressly endorsed this interpretation. *See Pandora* Anti-SLAPP Opp. at 23.

¹⁷ To be sure, certain uses of "published" sound recordings nevertheless remained restricted under misappropriation, conversion, and unfair competition doctrines—but no California case has ever suggested, let alone held, that those restrictions were entirely co-extensive with the rights under copyright law. To the contrary, as discussed further, *infra* at 23-24, courts have applied these ancillary doctrines to restrain only a limited set of uses of sound recordings, which neither resemble nor approach the full suite of rights afforded under copyright law. *Cf. Pandora* at 13.

If the 1982 revision of section 980(a)(2) afforded all of those previously "published" sound recordings "all rights that can attach to intellectual property" (save the single one enumerated in the statute), then that legislative action amounts to the single largest rescission of works from the public domain in U.S. history. Yet it occurred at a time when even *copyright holders* assumed that removing works from the public domain was unconstitutional. ¹⁸ See Br. for Plaintiff-Appellee at 15, Lone Ranger Television, Inc. v. Program Radio Corp., 740 F.2d 718 (9th Cir. 1984). And it triggered not even a whimper of objection from anyone in the broadcasting industry, 1982 Leg. Hist. at 50—even though, under the plaintiffs' theory, a resurrection of copyright protection (including "all rights that can attach to intellectual property") would have imposed a new obligation to pay royalties on public performances of sound recordings whose copyright protection had previously been terminated. Moreover, far from expressing an intention to alter the status quo ante in the 1982 statutory revision, the Legislature expressed the contrary intention, to *maintain* rights and remedies where they stood at the time. *Id.* at 14. That meant *no* California copyright protection for previously published sound recordings.

The Court's prior approach to interpreting section 980(a)(2) cannot be reconciled with this legislative intent. A different approach is warranted.

"Exclusive Ownership" Codifies Rights In Sound Recordings Existing As Of 1982 2.

Section 980(a)(2) maintains the *status quo ante* from the time it was enacted. See id. at 14. At that time, authors of "compositions in letters or art" (including sound recordings) were granted "an exclusive ownership" in those works until they

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Even under today's prevailing standard for assessing the lawfulness of public domain rescissions, established in *Golan v. Holder*, this (putative) 1982 public domain rescission would likely be unconstitutional—because it contained none of the protections or exceptions for reliance interests deemed essential in later cases. See Golan, 132 S.Ct. at 892, n. 33 (noting the care Congress exercised to avoid Takings Clause problems by including a range of exemptions in a 1994 statutory rescission of works from the public domain).

were published, at which point all legal protection afforded by section 980 terminated. *See id.* at 33-34; *Lone Ranger*, 740 F.2d at 726. The identical phrase was carried over into the new law. The 1982 revision of section 980 did not have the effect of resurrecting the copyright protection that California law had previously extinguished.

In *Pandora*, the Court agreed that in the pre-1982 era, publication divested sound recordings' section 980 rights. *Pandora* at 10. But the Court nevertheless suggested that bringing published sound recordings back under copyright protection in 1982 would not have been a material change because even published sound recordings enjoyed protection under *non-copyright* common law doctrines such as misappropriation, unfair competition, and conversion. Specifically, the Court ruled that these non-copyright doctrines—which it called "common law property concepts"—effectively provided the exact same set of rights as the copyright that was divested by publication; for this reason, as the Court put it, "[t]he 'publication' repeal was a non-event, because sound recording owners already enjoyed post-publication protection in California." *Id.* at 13. Thus, the idea goes, deeming the current section 980(a)(2) applicable to previously published sound recordings creates no significant departure from the *status quo ante*.

That is simply wrong. iHeartMedia has no quarrel with the suggestion that these non-copyright common law doctrines afforded *some* legal limits on the use of published sound recordings (just as they afforded limits on the use of all manner of property by third parties). But there is no basis for the suggestion that those "post-publication protection[s]" under misappropriation, unfair competition, and conversion doctrine entirely replicated, or even approached, the full suite of *copyright* rights available to a work before its publication.

To the contrary, precedent contradicts that conclusion. Historically, the California Court of Appeal understood that federal copyright law *preempted* state law theories of protection that essentially mimicked copyright (in published

works). So in common law cases involving sound recordings, courts went out of their way to make clear that conduct amounting to "misappropriation" or "unfair competition" was *different* from conduct amounting to copyright infringement. As *Erickson* explained, U.S. Supreme Court precedent "prohibit[ed] state injunctions against copying but not against appropriations—the difference being between the duplication of one's work by another—copying—and the use of the identical product for the profits of another—misappropriation." 2 Cal. App. 3d at 534 (quoting Paul Goldstein, *Federal System Ordering of the Copyright Interest*, 69 Colum. L. Rev. 49 (1969)) (quotation marks omitted). Courts thus specifically defined misappropriation doctrine *not* to replicate copyright doctrine. This is why in one leading misappropriation case, "where the defendant, without authority, dubbed plaintiff's recorded performance, *the fact that the copying of a phonograph record was involved was deemed immaterial*." *Id.* (emphasis added).

The "post-publication protections" available under *non-copyright* common

The "post-publication protections" available under *non-copyright* common law doctrines did not create the same exact set of rights as *copyright* law. In fact, courts bent over backwards to ensure the opposite—that these two bodies of law were *not* co-extensive. Misappropriation, conversion, and unfair competition doctrine restricted the particular forms of conduct California courts had applied those bodies of law to condemn: openly piratic, mass duplication of sound recordings in competition with a *bona fide* distributor. Nothing more, nothing less. So extending *copyright* protection to published sound recordings—previously subject only to misappropriation, conversion, and unfair competition rights—would indeed be a radical departure from the *status quo ante* in which copyright protection was extinguished.

The Legislature did not intend the 1982 revision of section 980 to have any such effect. State law copyright protection did not apply to previously published sound recordings before the 1982 revision, and it does not apply to previously published sound recordings after the 1982 revision. Plaintiffs' section 980(a)(2)

claim thus fails as a matter of law, because all of their sound recordings were "published" as of 1982.¹⁹

В. Plaintiffs' Ancillary Claims Fail As A Matter of Law

If Plaintiffs' ancillary claims under conversion, misappropriation, and unfair competition law depend on their section 980(a)(2) claim, then the ancillary claims fail because the section 980(a)(2) claim fails. If Plaintiffs intend to assert these ancillary claims independent of their section 980(a)(2) claim, then the ancillary claims fail independently as well. Though courts have allowed parties in limited circumstances to invoke these doctrines to restrain mass duplication and resale of previously published sound recordings, the "rights" under misappropriation, conversion and unfair competition law have never been held to mirror, or even approach, the full bundle of rights afforded under copyright law. Cf. Erickson, 2 Cal. App. 3d at 528; *Heilman*, 75 Cal. App. 3d at 560; *Lone Ranger*, 740 F.2d at 726. No California case has ever proscribed radio play of sound recordings as a freestanding misappropriation, conversion, or form of unfair competition. This Court should not extend those doctrines to cover activity that has been ubiquitous and lawful for nearly 100 years.

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Plaintiffs cannot carry their burden under the anti-SLAPP law to show a "probability of prevailing," because all of their claims fail as a matter of law; and for the same reasons, the Court should grant iHeartMedia's motion to dismiss.

CONCLUSION

iHeartMedia respectfully asks the Court to grant this motion to dismiss or, in the alternative, anti-SLAPP motion.

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¹⁹ In the alternative, Plaintiffs' section 980 claim fails because there is no exclusive right of public performance for sound recordings under California law. To the extent that section 980(a)(2) does currently protect Plaintiffs' sound recordings, the rights it affords simply do not include the rights asserted in this case. The Court is familiar with this argument, having rejected it in the *Sirius* case—so iHeartMedia will not reprise it here in full, but hereby preserves the point for appeal.

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